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Title: Motor pathway convergence predicts vocal learning capacities in oscine birds

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Abstract

Behavioral specializations are frequently associated with expansions of brain regions controlling them. Examples of these relationships span sensory, motor, and cognitive abilities and are found across a wide variety of species, suggesting that they represent a general principle of vertebrate brain evolution. Yet, the precise mechanisms by which increases in neuron number underlie behavioral elaborations have seldom been identified and whether this concept can be extrapolated to entire neural pathways is unknown. Birdsong is a complex, learned motor behavior that varies immensely across species but is controlled by an evolutionarily conserved and discrete neural circuit. Using phylogenetic comparative methods, we show that the capacity to learn multiple song components is strongly related to the amount of descending control along the song motor pathway and that syllable repertoire size is more accurately predicted by pathway convergence than by its overall number of neurons. Furthermore, the degrees of convergence along serial premotor and primary motor projections are unrelated to each other and account for distinct portions of the behavioral variation. These findings suggest that selection on different aspects of song has driven changes in distinct components of this hierarchical motor pathway. They also elucidate a straightforward mechanism by which evolutionary increases in descending motor control could have underlied increases in birdsong repertoire size.

\body

Introduction

Many behavioral capacities are directly related to the size of the brain regions controlling them. Examples of these associations are found throughout the vertebrate lineage and include structures involved in sensory processing [e.g., visual (1-3), auditory (4, 5), olfactory (1, 4, 6), and somatosensory (7)]; sensorimotor integration and motor coordination (8-10); and complex

cognitive tasks such as spatial memory (11-13), procedural learning (14), and possibly human language (15). These relationships are generally thought to exist because larger brain regions possess greater computational power and/or exert greater influence over other areas (16), but the precise physiological mechanisms underlying them have rarely been identified (17). Most analyses have also been limited to one or a few brain areas, therefore it remains unknown how behavioral capacities relate to aspects of neural circuit structure beyond overall size.

Birdsong is a learned vocal communication signal characterized by tremendous interspecific diversity. Species vary especially in their capacity to learn multiple song components, ranging from those that learn only a single syllable (18) to others that can produce repertoires of thousands of distinct sounds (19). The neural basis of this variation likely lies within the song system, a discrete and conserved network dedicated to song learning and production (Fig. 1; 20, 21). Two parallel pathways that arise from premotor nucleus HVC constitute the majority of this circuit: a caudal motor pathway controls song production (22, 23) and a rostral, basal ganglia loop mediates song learning and plasticity but is not required for song production in adults (24-27).

Three lines of evidence suggest that the size of nucleus HVC is a principal determinant of the capacity to learn large repertoires. First, repertoire size and HVC volume are positively correlated within species (28, 29), between species (30, 31), and between sexes (32, 33). Second, they co-vary after experimental treatments that enhance (34) or constrain (35) song learning. HVC volume is unaffected by withholding song exposure during development, however, therefore its size more likely reflects the amount of learning possible than the amount of learning accomplished (36-38). Third, the potential physiological basis for this relationship was identified in the zebra finch (*Taeniopygia guttata*): HVC sparsely encodes temporal features

of song whereby individual premotor neurons fire a single, precisely-timed burst of action potentials during each song rendition (23). If this specificity between single neurons and brief song segments is general across species (39), then evolutionary increases in repertoire size would seem to require corresponding increases in HVC neuron number.

The significance of the HVC-repertoire association remains contentious, however, because HVC volume usually explains a small proportion of the behavioral variation and large outliers can dominate the correlations (40). Moreover, some species in which males and females sing equivalent repertoires have dimorphic HVC volumes (41, 42); age-related increases in repertoire size can occur without increases in HVC volume (43); and seasonal fluctuations in HVC volume are not always accompanied by changes in repertoire size (44-46). These observations seem to contradict notions of a strict correspondence between the two. Here, we investigate whether the consideration of multiple song nuclei improves this relationship and describe an aspect of song system architecture that accurately predicts syllable repertoire size across a wide phylogeny of species.

Results

Relationships between song nuclei

All anatomical and behavioral measurements are provided in Dataset S1 of the online supporting information. Phylogenetic comparative analyses were based on a composite phylogeny constructed from published molecular studies (Fig. 2). Each song nucleus volume scaled positively with the telencephalon but they differed in their variability (Table S1). HVC and MMAN, in particular, had very weak allometric relationships ($0.31 \leq r^2 \leq 0.34$). The volumes of RA, Area X, LMAN, and nXIIIts scaled more directly with the telencephalon ($0.40 \leq$

$r^2 \leq 0.50$), and Uva and DM sizes tightly corresponded to it ($0.72 \leq r^2 \leq 0.76$). These differences were especially apparent in comparisons of absolute volumes between similarly-sized species. For example, the spotted flycatcher (*Muscicapa striata*) had HVC and MMAN volumes that were 15- and 9-fold larger, respectively, than those of the common yellowthroat (*Geothlypis trichas*), but it had RA, Area X, and LMAN volumes that were only 3-4 times as large (Fig. S1). Despite this heterogeneity, strong positive correlations still linked most song nucleus volumes after accounting for overall size (Table S2).

Neural correlates of syllable repertoire size

Results from multiple phylogenetic generalized least squares (PGLS) models that explained variation in syllable repertoire size as a function of various song nucleus volume combinations are provided in Table S3. A full model that included all song nuclei as predictor variables accounted for a large proportion of the behavioral variation ($R^2 = 0.72$; AIC = 57.4). Three reduced models containing nuclei along the caudal motor pathway were comparable: HVC, RA, nXIIIts ($R^2 = 0.71$; AIC = 49.8; likelihood ratio test (LRT) $P = 0.80$); HVC and RA ($R^2 = 0.67$; AIC = 54.1; LRT $P = 0.19$), and HVC and nXIIIts ($R^2 = 0.67$; AIC = 53.9; LRT $P = 0.20$). Inclusion of interaction terms did not improve the predictive value of any of these models. A surprising pattern emerged among the partial coefficients of these and many other reduced models: the slope associated with the most afferent nucleus (relative to the syrinx) was positive while those describing efferent area(s) were usually negative. For instance, the coefficients for MMAN and HVC were nearly always positive, that for nXIIIts was generally negative, and those for intermediate nuclei such as RA and Area X were contingent upon the nucleus with which they were paired (i.e. positive when paired with an efferent nucleus but negative when with an afferent nucleus). The only exception was HVC, which always retained a positive coefficient.

These opposing relationships suggested that motor pathway convergence, defined as the size of HVC relative to RA [$HVC_{(RA)}$] and RA relative to nXIIts [$RA_{(nXIIts)}$], would be a superior predictor of song learning capacities than their volumes relative to the telencephalon. This was illustrated with residual analyses (Fig. 3, Table S4). Syllable repertoire size was more strongly related to $HVC_{(RA)}$ ($r^2 = 0.61$; AIC = 58.4) than to HVC relative to the telencephalon ($r^2 = 0.44$; AIC = 76.3), and it was significantly related to $RA_{(nXIIts)}$ ($r^2 = 0.22$; AIC = 92.3) but not to the volumes of either RA or nXIIts relative to the telencephalon (both $P > 0.08$). Interestingly, $HVC_{(RA)}$ and $RA_{(nXIIts)}$ were not correlated ($r = 0.24$, $P = 0.10$) and both retained significant, positive partial coefficients [2.6 ($P < 0.0001$) and 1.4 ($P = 0.0009$), respectively] in a two-factor model explaining the variation in repertoire size ($R^2 = 0.69$; AIC = 48.6). This model was significantly better than one based on the entire song motor pathway volume relative to the telencephalon ($R^2 = 0.31$; AIC = 85.9). The same patterns emerged from analyses of song motor pathway neuron numbers (#). $HVC\#_{(RA\#)}$ and $RA\#_{(nXIIts\#)}$ were strongly associated with repertoire size ($R^2 = 0.63$; AIC = 57.3; Table S5), were a significantly better predictor of it than overall pathway neuron number ($R^2 = 0.40$; AIC = 79.2), and were not related to each other ($r = 0.07$; $P = 0.64$). These measures seem likely to reflect genuine differences in the number of descending fibers along these pathways because HVC and RA neuron numbers were inversely related to RA and nXIIts neuronal densities, respectively, after accounting for overall telencephalon size (both $r < -0.42$; both $P < 0.001$).

Syllable repertoire size was only related to HVC and MMAN (both $P \leq 0.0002$) when song nuclei were considered individually (Table S6), and it was not related to any of the areas outside the song system: telencephalon ($r = 0.18$, $P = 0.21$), M ($r = -0.08$, $P = 0.59$), Hp ($r = -0.11$, $P = 0.45$), Sep ($r = -0.06$, $P = 0.70$), TnA ($r = -0.12$, $P = 0.43$), or MLd ($r = 0.02$, $P = 0.88$).

Discussion

As songbirds diversified, changes in syllable repertoire size closely paralleled those in the degree of song motor pathway convergence. Surprisingly, distinct portions of the observed behavioral variation are attributable to serial premotor and primary motor projections, $HVC_{(RA)}$ and $RA_{(nXIIts)}$, respectively. This suggests a modular organization whereby selection on particular song features has shaped the structure of distinct song motor pathway components. It also implies that increases in the amount of descending motor control, and not global circuit expansions, have led to greater song learning capacities because the volumes of RA and nXIIts are *inversely* related to the residuals from the HVC- and RA-repertoire regressions, respectively. In other words, species with fewer HVC and RA neurons than expected from their repertoire also have relatively few RA and nXIIts neurons, respectively, while those with more HVC and RA neurons than expected from their repertoire have correspondingly high RA and nXIIts neuron numbers. Thus, even though the song system has evolved as a cohesive network with strong positive correlations linking most relative nucleus volumes, the ability to learn many syllables is more accurately predicted by the relative size differences between nuclei than by their collective size relative to the rest of the brain.

New syllables could be created in at least two ways: by modifying the sequence and/or temporal properties of brief sounds already mastered or by producing novel, acoustically distinct sounds. Physiological studies in the zebra finch illuminate how increases in $HVC_{(RA)}$ and $RA_{(nXIIts)}$ could accomplish these feats. HVC-to-RA projection neurons sparsely encode song whereby each cell fires a short (~6 ms), temporally precise burst of action potentials that corresponds to one specific song segment (23). These cells are thought to be connected via axon

collaterals to form a feedforward synfire chain, whereby the sequential firing of neurons along a chain specifies an entire syllable or song (47-51). Pools of neurons that are simultaneously active would then excite unique ensembles of RA neurons, for which population-level activity patterns also correspond to short song segments (52, 53). Expansions of $HVC_{(RA)}$ could enable the production of larger repertoires in at least two ways. First, they would enhance syntactical capacities by increasing the number of possible synfire chains within HVC. Even if many of the neurons share the same projection patterns onto a given number of RA neurons, this would increase the number of ways to combine short sounds. Alternatively, more HVC-to-RA neurons with distinct projection patterns would excite novel RA ensembles and could lead to the generation of new sounds (see below). As an extension of this notion, smaller $HVC_{(RA)}$ sizes would limit both the number of possible synfire chains and the number of potential RA ensembles and thereby constrain a bird's syntactic and/or acoustic flexibility.

Individual RA neurons are less specific and burst multiple times throughout each song rendition, but population-level activity patterns are as temporally precise as those in HVC and also correspond to specific syllable segments (52, 53). RA represents the first myotopic map of syringeal and respiratory muscles along this pathway (54, 55), and its activity patterns affect song phonology because the adduction or abduction of syringeal labia and the airflow past them largely shape the spectral features of song (56). It has been suggested that the strength of each muscular contraction is determined by the linear sum of RA inputs onto $nXIIts$ neurons rather than the specific composition of the RA ensembles (53, 57). If true and if RA axon arborization and synaptic strengths are relatively constant, increases in $RA_{(nXIIts)}$ would increase the total amount of excitatory input received by each $nXIIts$ neuron, expand its range of attainable firing rates, and thus increase the potential contractile strength of that motor unit. On the other hand, if

increases in $RA_{(nXIIIts)}$ are accompanied by decreases in RA axonal branching and/or synaptic strengths, increases in convergence could facilitate more precise and smaller changes in $nXIIIts$ firing rates. Either of these scenarios would enable greater control over syringeal shape and could thereby lead to the production of more spectrally varied sounds.

Of course, species likely vary in numerous other ways that impact these relationships. Approximately half of all HVC neurons project to RA in the zebra finch (58, 59), but this may not be representative of other species. Other potential variables include axonal arborization patterns, synaptic strengths and densities, motor unit size, syringeal muscle number, and physiological activity patterns. Differences in song can further complicate comparisons between species, such as when syllables differ in their degree of difficulty. Nevertheless, the relationship between repertoire size and motor pathway convergence is robust and current models of song encoding provide a potential explanation as to why it exists (53, 57).

Many species organize syllables into distinct song types or vary their sequence in predictable ways. The brain area(s) underlying this higher order song patterning have not been identified, but they seem likely to be afferent to HVC given the hierarchical organization of the song system. MMAN appears particularly well situated to serve such a role insofar as the extensive behavioral variability can be expected to accompany large anatomical differences. Its axons ramify throughout HVC (60) and its relative volume is both highly variable across species and strongly correlated with that of HVC. Moreover, MMAN lesions made in juvenile zebra finches severely disrupt song learning and prevent song stabilization. Those made in adults have more modest effects but do increase syntactical variability, especially the identity of a song's first syllable (61). Future experiments in species capable of learning multiple song types will help to clarify MMAN's role in song production.

It has long been thought that heightened behavioral capacities emerge due to broad expansions of the neural circuits controlling them. Our results support this view on the whole but also reveal informative aspects of circuit architecture overlooked by this explanation. In particular, we demonstrate that relative size differences between circuit components can be a superior indicator of behavioral abilities than the overall number of neurons in the pathway. Other motor systems may be structured in a similar way. The connectivity of the song system closely resembles that of a movement-associated motor network in birds (62), and it seems plausible that similar physiological mechanisms encode both types of behaviors. Differences in manual dexterity across mammals are also ostensibly related to the degree of convergence along the corticospinal tract (63-66). Such wide-ranging comparisons are limited in many ways, but the available evidence suggests that motor pathway convergence may relate to several capacities in addition to birdsong. These findings refine the common belief that behavioral specializations are related to gross expansions of their underlying neural substrate and highlight the importance of descending neural control in the evolution of a learned motor behavior.

Materials and Method

Specimen collection and preparation

One to four adult male songbirds of 58 temperate zone species spanning 18 families were wild-caught with mist nets. Collections were restricted to spring months (April – June) when birds were reproductively active to minimize seasonal variation in song system anatomy. Most were collected throughout Hungary from 1993-1995 or in Tompkins County, New York in 2004. Exceptions were the white-throated sparrows (*Zonotrichia albicollis*) from Ontario, Canada in 1991; European pied flycatchers (*Ficedula hypoleuca*) from central Norway in 1995; yellow-

throated buntings (*Emberiza elegans*) from China in 1991; and northern mockingbirds (*Mimus polyglottos*) from North Carolina in 2003. At the time of capture, birds were deeply anesthetized with a barbiturate anesthetic and transcardially perfused with 0.8% saline followed by 10% formalin in saline. Brains were extracted, post-fixed for at least 24 hours, cryoprotected with 30% sucrose/10% formalin, embedded in gelatin, and sectioned at 40 μ m in the coronal plane with a sliding microtome. Sections were then mounted onto gel-coated slides and Nissl-stained with cresyl violet. All appropriate local, provincial, and/or national permits were held at the time of bird collection, and all procedures were approved by the Cornell University Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee.

Brain measurements

Nucleus and brain region boundaries were traced with aid of a camera lucida from every other section viewed with 40 \times or from every fourth section viewed with 20 \times magnification [mesopallium and hippocampus only]. The telencephalon was measured in every fourth section from unmagnified digital images. All reported values are from one side of the brain, typically the left except in cases where torn tissue or poor staining prevented measurements of that side. Cross-sectional areas of scanned boundary traces and telencephalon images were measured with NIH ImageJ software (67) and final volumes were computed by summing the areas and multiplying by the sampling interval (0.08 or 0.16 mm).

Exemplar images of each nucleus and additional delineation criteria are provided in the online supporting information (Fig. S2). The song nuclei measured include HVC, the robust nucleus of the arcopallium (RA), Area X of the striatum, the lateral and medial magnocellular nuclei of the anterior nidopallium (LMAN and MMAN, respectively), uvaeformis (Uva), the dorsomedial nucleus of the intercollicular complex (DM), and the tracheosyringeal portion of the

hypoglossal nucleus (nXIIts). The boundaries of most were unambiguous. HVC traces included the two subdivisions visible in coronal sections: a central region that contains large, darkly-stained cells and a caudomedial region (i.e. paraHVC) comprised of small, densely-packed neurons (68). In most cases, MMAN and LMAN were easily distinguished; when they were contiguous, their shared boundary was delineated on the basis of MMAN's slightly smaller somata. Song nuclei that could not be reliably identified in all specimens were not measured included the nucleus interface of the nidopallium (NIf), the medial portion of the dorsolateral nucleus of the anterior thalamus (DLM), and the dorsomedial nucleus of the posterior thalamus (DMP). Other brain regions analyzed included the mesopallial subdivision of the telencephalon (M), which has been related to feeding innovation rate (69); limbic structures involved in spatial memory (hippocampus (Hp), 70), territoriality and sociality (septum (Sep), 71, 72), or sexual behavior and pair bonding (nucleus taeniae of the amygdala (TnA), 73, 74); and an auditory nucleus (dorsal part of the lateral mesencephalic nucleus (MLd), 75). Specimens representing 13 of the 58 species were used in previous studies (30, 31, 76); all areas were re-measured and exclusion of these data did not alter the principal findings reported here.

Neuronal densities in HVC, RA, and nXIIts were estimated from one brain of each species. Presumptive neurons were discriminated from glia on the basis of their larger somata, uniformly stained cytoplasm, and single nucleolus. Nucleolus counts were made using sampling windows evenly distributed throughout each structure and, on average, 13 tallies (range: 7-26) were made in each. Grid dimensions were $80 \times 80 \mu\text{m}$ (600 \times , HVC and nXIIts) or $120 \times 120 \mu\text{m}$ (400 \times , RA).

Syllable repertoires

The behavioral unit of interest was a song syllable, defined as a continuous trace on a spectrogram or a stereotyped sequence of notes separated by less than 25 msec. A syllable repertoire is the number of unique syllables produced by an individual bird. Species-typical syllable repertoires were obtained for 49 of the 58 species, mostly from published sources (provided in the online supporting information). When multiple sources were found for a species, one was chosen on the basis of sample size, conformity of the syllable definition with that above, proximity of the recording site to the site of specimen collection, and the season during which recordings were made.

Repertoires for seven species were estimated from recordings held by the Macaulay Library at Cornell University using the Syrinx sound analysis program (77). All syllables known to originate from one individual were used to construct plots of new syllables encountered versus the total number of syllables sampled. The function $y = a(1 - e^{-bx})$ was fit to the data and the asymptote (a) was used as the estimated repertoire and averaged across individuals for each species.

Phylogeny

A fully resolved, composite phylogeny was constructed from published molecular phylogenies (Fig. 2; sources provided in the online supporting information). All inter-family relationships were inferred from the analysis of two nuclear genes (RAG-1 and RAG-2). Most intra-family relationships were based on the mitochondrial gene(s) cytochrome *b* and/or ND2, occasionally in addition to a nuclear gene. Given this diversity of methods, arbitrary branch lengths were used for statistical analyses.

Comparative analysis

We used Mesquite v2.5 (78) to manage data and trees and the PDAP:PDTTree v1.14 module to analyze independent contrasts (79, 80). We constructed phylogenetic generalized least squares (PGLS) models with the Matlab program REGRESSIONv2.m (81) after converting the phylogenetic tree to a variance-covariance matrix with the PDDIST module of the Phenotypic Diversity Analysis Programs (80).

Analyses were based on \log_{10} -transformed data. In all cases, we used the arbitrary branch lengths of Grafen (82) scaled with the rho transform ($\rho = 0.3$) because this tree passed the diagnostic tests for all traits (83, 84). Results from conventional statistics that disregard phylogenetic relatedness (i.e. assume a star phylogeny) were qualitatively consistent but are not reported here. We constructed numerous PGLS models to (1) explore the relationships between relative song nucleus volumes and (2) explain the variation in syllable repertoire size as a function of various brain measurements. Because behavioral data were only available from 49 species, the latter analyses were run after the phylogenetic tree was pruned, branch lengths re-scaled and diagnostic tests re-run. Nested and non-nested models were compared using ln maximum likelihood ratio tests (LRTs) and the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC; smaller is better), respectively. Partial F -tests were used to determine the significance of independent variable parameters in multivariate models. Note that R^2 values from PGLS models are not comparable to those from traditional ordinary least squares models.

A ‘size’ covariate was included in every model, but the actual measurement used depended on the particular analysis. When the variable of interest was a telencephalic nucleus or subdivision, we used the difference between the telencephalon and the respective system/subdivision volume (i.e. T – sum of song nuclei (T-SS), T – sum of limbic structures (T-LS), or T-M) in order to control for part-whole artifacts. Otherwise, telencephalon volume was

used as the ‘size’ covariate for analyses of MLd, and species-typical body mass (85) was used for analyses of the telencephalon.

We conducted residual analyses to illustrate the concept of ‘pathway convergence,’ but we call attention to the tendency for this procedure to yield biased parameter estimates (86, 87). Here, regression slopes were estimated for a \log_{10} -transformed nucleus volume as a function of the same ‘size’ reference above [e.g., $\log(\text{HVC})$ versus $\log(\text{T-SS})$] or of another nucleus [e.g., $\log(\text{HVC})$ versus $\log(\text{RA})$]. These slopes were then used to compute relative trait volumes with the formula $\log_{10}[\text{trait}/(\text{size}^b)]$, where b was the regression exponent, and ‘trait’ and ‘size’ were original data values.

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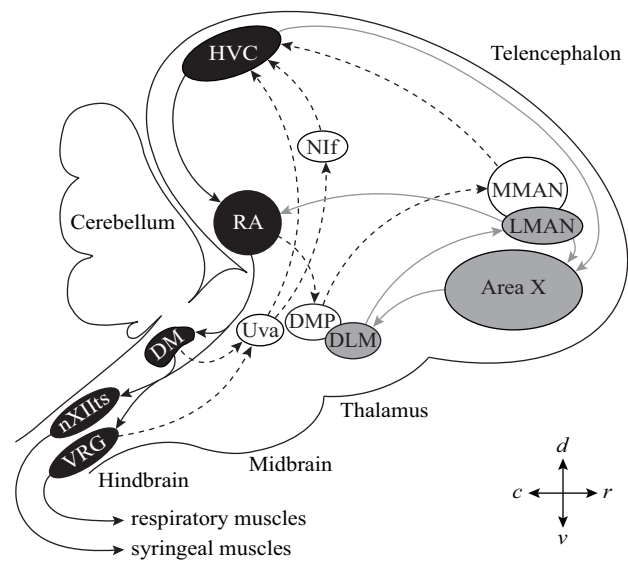
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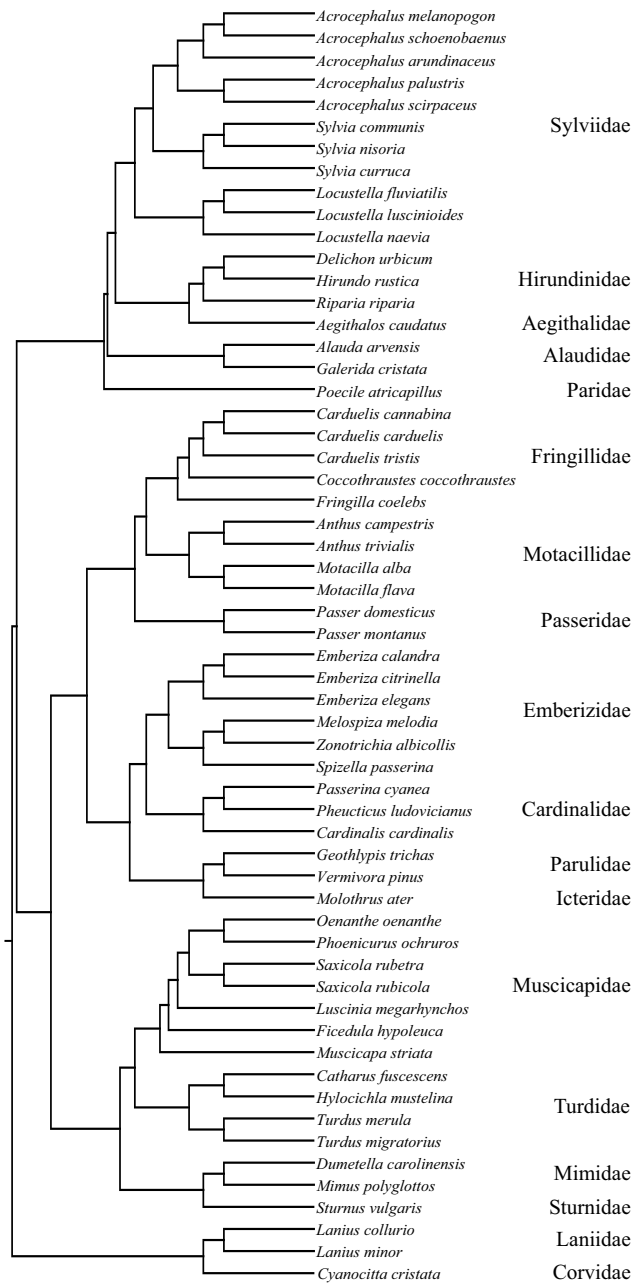
Figure Legends

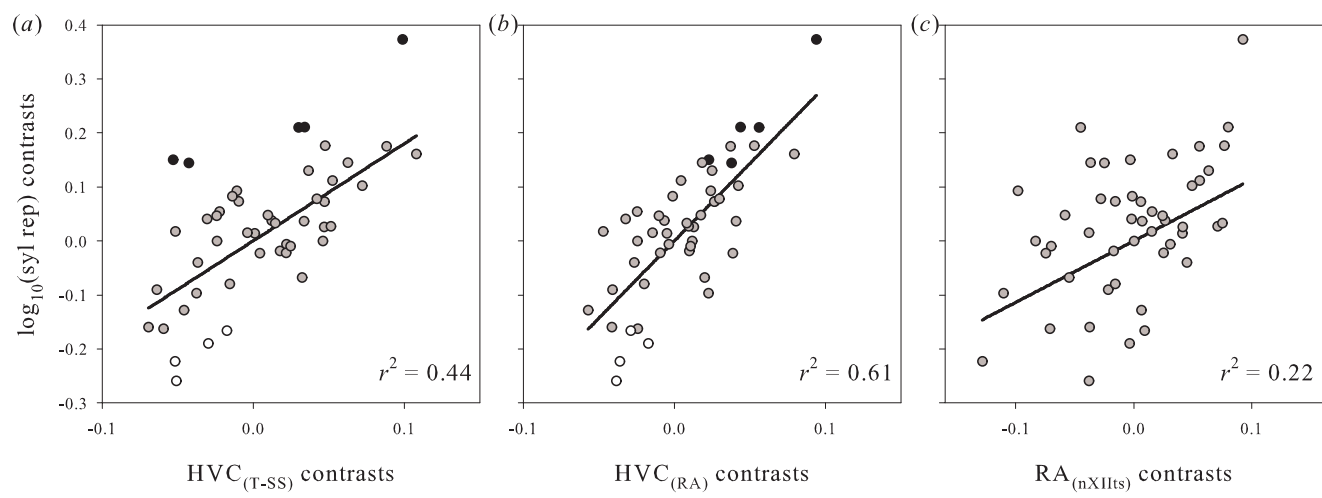
Fig. 1. Major projections of the song system. The caudal motor pathway (black) underlies song production, the anterior forebrain pathway (gray) is required for song learning and plasticity, and feedback projections (dashed lines) coordinate activity between hemispheres. VRG: ventral respiratory group.

Fig. 2. Composite phylogeny of 58 species spanning 18 families used in this study. Arbitrary branch lengths were scaled with the method of Grafen (82) and the rho transform ($\rho = 0.3$). Sources are provided in the online supporting information.

Fig. 3. Correlations between standardized independent contrasts of $\log_{10}(\text{syllable repertoire})$ and (a) HVC volume relative to the telencephalon – song system [$\text{HVC}_{(\text{T-SS})}$], (b) HVC volume relative to RA [$\text{HVC}_{(\text{RA})}$], and (c) RA volume relative to nXIIts [$\text{RA}_{(\text{nXIIts})}$]. Black and open symbols highlight the largest positive and negative deviations, respectively, in (a) and their reduction in (b). $N = 48$.







Supporting Information

Fig. S1. Alternate coronal sections containing the left HVC and RA of a spotted flycatcher (*Muscicapa striata*) and common yellowthroat (*Geothlypis trichas*). The spotted flycatcher has approximately 15× more HVC neurons but only 3× more RA neurons than the common yellowthroat.

Fig. S2. Examples of the delineation criteria used for each nucleus in this study. Scale bar = 1 mm in each panel. (a) HVC, including both the central and caudomedial (paraHVC) subdivisions, of a marsh warbler (*Acrocephalus palustris*); (b) RA of a sand martin (*Riparia riparia*); (c) MMAN (red), LMAN (yellow), and Area X (green) of a northern wheatear (*Oenanthe oenanthe*); (d) Uva of a grey catbird (*Dumetella carolinensis*); (e) DM (red) and MLd (yellow) of a Eurasian skylark (*Alauda arvensis*); (f) nXIIIts of a brown-headed cowbird (*Molothrus ater*); (g) Hp and Sep of a black-capped chickadee (*Poecile atricapillus*); (h) TnA of a common blackbird (*Turdus merula*).

SI Methods

Region delineation criteria

Rostral M was identified by differences in staining intensity compared to adjacent regions; in more central and caudal sections, it was clearly distinguished by the superior frontal and mesopallial laminae. The lateral extent of Hp was identified by its lower cell density compared to adjacent areas (1). Caudal Hp does not have a clear boundary with the surrounding parahippocampal area, therefore measurements were arbitrarily stopped at the section in which the cerebellum reached the dorsal-most extent of the telencephalon. Sep boundaries were identified by differences in staining intensity and appeared to coincide with those described by chemoarchitecture (2); the estimates reported here include most of the four major subdivisions but exclude portions of the nucleus of the diagonal band ventral to the

septopallio-mesencephalic tract. Both TnA and MLd were delineated on the basis of their staining intensity and/or cell density.

Syllable repertoire sources

Syllable repertoire sources listed in Dataset S1 are provided below (3-35). Sources used to construct the phylogeny were: inter-family (36); Sylviidae (37-40); Hirundinidae (41); Fringillidae (42-44); Motacillidae (45); Emberizidae (46, 47); Cardinalidae (48); Muscicapidae (49, 50); Turdidae (51); Mimidae (52).

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Table S1. Allometric relationships of song nuclei as a function of log(T-SS). In all cases, df = 56.

Nucleus	<i>r</i>	coef.	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>
log(MMAN)	0.586	0.768	5.4157	<0.0001
log(Uva)	0.850	0.642	12.0677	<0.0001
log(HVC)	0.560	0.810	5.0538	<0.0001
log(Area X)	0.685	0.851	7.0302	<0.0001
log(LMAN)	0.631	0.793	6.0825	<0.0001
log(RA)	0.705	0.852	7.4322	<0.0001
log(DM)	0.869	0.634	13.1404	<0.0001
log(nXIIIts)	0.647	0.669	6.3426	<0.0001

Table S2. Correlations between song nucleus volumes after accounting for the size covariate log(T-SS). Shaded cells indicate directly connected nuclei. In all cases, df = 55.

		log(MMAN)	log(Uva)	log(HVC)	log(Area X)	log(LMAN)	log(RA)	log(DM)
log(Uva)	<i>r</i>	0.047						
	<i>F</i>	0.120						
	<i>P</i>	0.730						
log(HVC)	<i>r</i>	0.741	0.325					
	<i>F</i>	67.098	6.487					
	<i>P</i>	<0.0001	0.014					
log(Area X)	<i>r</i>	0.569	0.461	0.678				
	<i>F</i>	26.288	14.827	46.920				
	<i>P</i>	<0.0001	0.0003	<0.0001				
log(LMAN)	<i>r</i>	0.398	0.432	0.497	0.717			
	<i>F</i>	10.373	12.593	18.037	58.275			
	<i>P</i>	0.002	0.0008	<0.0001	<0.0001			
log(RA)	<i>r</i>	0.461	0.446	0.702	0.698	0.699		
	<i>F</i>	14.836	13.695	53.386	52.272	52.645		
	<i>P</i>	0.0003	0.0005	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001		
log(DM)	<i>r</i>	0.141	0.237	0.222	0.190	0.101	0.197	
	<i>F</i>	1.108	3.260	2.851	2.056	0.562	2.224	
	<i>P</i>	0.297	0.076	0.097	0.157	0.456	0.142	
log(nXIIts)	<i>r</i>	0.176	0.122	0.329	0.504	0.509	0.630	0.163
	<i>F</i>	1.751	0.837	6.658	18.766	19.224	36.278	1.510
	<i>P</i>	0.191	0.364	0.013	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.224

Table S3. Multivariate PGLS models that explain variation in **log(syl rep)** as a function of various song nucleus volume combinations and the size covariate log(T-SS). R^2 values are not comparable to those from ordinary least squares models, and likelihood ratio tests are in comparison to the full model (#1).

Model	Nucleus	Parameter			df	Model			
		coef.	F	P		R^2	ln ML	AIC	LRT P
1	log(MMAN)	-0.178	0.148	0.702	39	0.723	-17.708	57.415	----
	log(Uva)	-0.358	0.134	0.716					
	log(HVC)	2.999	41.087	<0.0001					
	log(Area X)	-0.551	0.887	0.352					
	log(LMAN)	0.016	0.001	0.975					
	log(RA)	-1.129	2.262	0.141					
	log(DM)	0.337	0.165	0.687					
	log(nXIIts)	-1.162	4.396	0.043					
	log(T-SS)	0.619	0.622	0.435					
2	log(HVC)	2.680	72.395	<0.0001	44	0.710	-18.889	49.779	0.797
	log(RA)	-1.440	5.898	0.019					
	log(nXIIts)	-1.159	6.038	0.018					
	log(T-SS)	0.553	1.575	0.216					
3	log(HVC)	2.803	60.063	<0.0001	44	0.638	-24.284	60.567	0.022
	log(Area X)	-0.910	2.429	0.126					
	log(LMAN)	-1.000	5.051	0.030					
	log(T-SS)	-0.277	0.411	0.525					
4	log(MMAN)	1.473	15.524	0.0003	45	0.306	-40.240	90.481	<0.0001
	log(Uva)	0.918	0.829	0.367					
	log(T-SS)	-1.113	1.691	0.200					
5	log(MMAN)	0.020	0.002	0.967	45	0.482	-33.065	76.129	<0.0001
	log(HVC)	1.826	16.424	0.0002					
	log(T-SS)	-0.969	4.153	0.047					
6	log(MMAN)	1.726	12.946	0.001	45	0.302	-40.370	90.741	<0.0001
	log(Area X)	-0.433	0.586	0.448					
	log(T-SS)	-0.303	0.259	0.614					
7	log(MMAN)	1.774	19.116	<0.0001	45	0.331	-39.345	88.690	<0.0001
	log(LMAN)	-0.704	2.535	0.118					
	log(T-SS)	-0.202	0.132	0.719					
8	log(MMAN)	1.660	16.100	0.0002	45	0.306	-40.235	90.470	<0.0001
	log(RA)	-0.522	0.839	0.365					
	log(T-SS)	-0.127	0.036	0.851					
9	log(MMAN)	1.499	15.572	0.0003	45	0.293	-40.686	91.372	<0.0001
	log(DM)	-0.062	0.003	0.958					
	log(T-SS)	-0.467	0.276	0.602					
10	log(MMAN)	1.631	21.469	<0.0001	45	0.394	-36.908	83.816	<0.0001
	log(nXIIts)	-1.360	7.506	0.009					
	log(T-SS)	0.420	0.485	0.490					
11	log(Uva)	-0.965	1.083	0.304	45	0.494	-32.483	74.966	<0.0001
	log(HVC)	1.964	38.070	<0.0001					
	log(T-SS)	-0.421	0.365	0.549					

Table S3 (cont.)

Model	Nucleus	Parameter			df	Model			
		coef.	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>		<i>R</i> ²	ln ML	AIC	LRT <i>P</i>
12	log(Uva)	1.394	1.526	0.223	45	0.135	-45.648	101.296	<0.0001
	log(nXIIts)	-1.111	3.537	0.066					
	log(T-SS)	0.637	0.421	0.520					
13	log(HVC)	2.806	55.227	<0.0001	45	0.597	-26.946	63.892	0.005
	log(Area X)	-1.717	12.768	0.0009					
	log(T-SS)	-0.305	0.458	0.502					
14	log(HVC)	2.483	67.361	<0.0001	45	0.618	-25.600	61.200	0.015
	log(LMAN)	-1.426	16.031	0.0002					
	log(T-SS)	-0.483	1.332	0.255					
15	log(HVC)	2.904	83.403	<0.0001	45	0.670	-22.040	54.080	0.193
	log(RA)	-2.393	25.576	<0.0001					
	log(T-SS)	0.400	0.756	0.389					
16	log(HVC)	1.862	38.052	<0.0001	45	0.485	-32.953	75.906	<0.0001
	log(DM)	-0.454	0.207	0.651					
	log(T-SS)	-0.694	0.843	0.363					
17	log(HVC)	2.169	77.290	<0.0001	45	0.671	-21.971	53.942	0.202
	log(nXIIts)	-1.907	25.774	<0.0001					
	log(T-SS)	0.182	0.174	0.679					
18	log(Area X)	1.656	5.131	0.028	45	0.144	-45.373	100.747	<0.0001
	log(LMAN)	-1.013	2.243	0.141					
	log(T-SS)	0.009	<0.001	0.989					
19	log(Area X)	1.609	9.835	0.003	45	0.266	-41.622	93.244	<0.0001
	log(nXIIts)	-1.947	10.060	0.003					
	log(T-SS)	0.768	1.373	0.248					
20	log(LMAN)	0.986	3.049	0.088	45	0.162	-44.859	99.717	<0.0001
	log(nXIIts)	-1.818	6.196	0.017					
	log(T-SS)	1.383	4.453	0.040					
21	log(RA)	1.933	7.425	0.009	45	0.232	-42.723	95.446	<0.0001
	log(nXIIts)	-2.318	10.200	0.003					
	log(T-SS)	0.609	0.738	0.395					
22	log(DM)	0.877	0.453	0.504	45	0.114	-46.219	102.439	<0.0001
	log(nXIIts)	-1.095	3.327	0.075					
	log(T-SS)	1.016	0.986	0.326					

Table S4. Residual analyses that explain variation in **log(syl rep)** as a function of relative song nucleus volumes. Volumes are either relative to another nucleus [e.g., HVC relative to RA, $HVC_{(RA)}$] or to the telencephalon minus the sum of song nuclei [e.g., $HVC_{(T-SS)}$]. SMP: song motor pathway (i.e. HVC+RA+nXIIts).

Model	Nucleus	Parameters			df	Model		
		coef.	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>		R^2	ln ML	AIC
1	$HVC_{(RA)}$	2.632	70.977	<0.0001	46	0.693	-20.295	48.589
	$RA_{(nXIIts)}$	1.418	12.508	0.0009				
2	$HVC_{(RA)}$	2.896	73.216	<0.0001	47	0.609	-26.187	58.374
3	$RA_{(nXIIts)}$	2.226	13.128	0.0007	47	0.218	-43.161	92.322
4	$HVC_{(T-SS)}$	1.840	36.467	<0.0001	47	0.437	-35.126	76.251
5	$RA_{(T-SS)}$	0.467	0.606	0.440	47	0.013	-48.882	103.76
6	$nXIIts_{(T-SS)}$	-1.039	3.005	0.090	47	0.060	-47.678	101.35
7	$SMP_{(T-SS)}$	1.897	21.512	<0.0001	47	0.314	-39.963	85.926

Table S5. Residual analyses that explain variation in syllable repertoire size as a function of relative song nucleus neuron numbers.

Model	Nucleus	Parameters			df	Model		
		coef.	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>		<i>R</i> ²	ln ML	AIC
1	HVC# _(RA#)	2.371	66.517	<0.0001	46	0.633	-24.662	57.324
	RA# _(nXIIts#)	1.224	8.975	0.004				
2	HVC# _(RA#)	2.430	60.052	<0.0001	47	0.561	-29.029	64.057
3	RA# _(nXIIts#)	1.452	5.304	0.026	47	0.101	-46.576	99.153
4	HVC# _(T-SS)	1.850	35.575	<0.0001	47	0.431	-35.389	76.778
5	RA# _(T-SS)	0.146	0.048	0.828	47	0.001	-49.171	104.34
6	nXIIts# _(T-SS)	-1.233	2.805	0.101	47	0.056	-47.776	101.55
7	SMP# _(T-SS)	1.939	31.557	<0.001	47	0.402	-36.611	79.222

Table S6. Two-factor PGLS models that explain variation in **log(syl rep)** as a function of a single structure volume or neuron number (#) and a corresponding size covariate. The partial r , coefficient, F -statistic and P -value refer to the relationship between each trait and repertoire size after accounting for size, while the ln ML and AIC values describe the entire model. In all cases, $df = 46$.

X		Trait				Model	
Size	Trait	r	coef.	F	P	ln ML	AIC
log(T-SS)	log(MMAN)	0.510	1.496	16.145	0.0002	-40.687	89.375
log(T-SS)	log(Uva)	0.150	1.186	1.056	0.310	-47.502	103.003
log(T-SS)	log(HVC)	0.677	1.840	38.823	<0.0001	-33.066	74.131
log(T-SS)	log(Area X)	0.243	0.841	2.889	0.096	-46.565	101.130
log(T-SS)	log(LMAN)	0.040	0.127	0.073	0.788	-48.019	104.038
log(T-SS)	log(RA)	0.116	0.467	0.622	0.434	-47.728	103.457
log(T-SS)	log(DM)	0.061	0.547	0.171	0.681	-47.967	103.933
log(T-SS)	log(nXIIIts)	-0.251	-1.039	3.090	0.085	-46.465	100.929
log(T-SS)	log(HVC#)	0.672	1.850	37.836	<0.0001	-33.352	74.704
log(T-SS)	log(RA#)	0.033	0.146	0.049	0.826	-48.032	104.063
log(T-SS)	log(nXIIIts#)	-0.243	-1.233	2.884	0.096	-46.568	101.135
log(Body Mass)	log(T)	0.183	1.430	1.589	0.214	-47.781	103.562
log(T-M)	log(M)	0.080	-0.680	0.293	0.591	-47.809	103.619
log(T-LS)	log(Hp)	0.113	-0.993	0.590	0.446	-47.680	103.360
log(T-LS)	log(Sep)	0.058	-0.561	0.153	0.697	-47.911	103.822
log(T-LS)	log(TnA)	0.117	-0.852	0.637	0.429	-47.656	103.311
log(T)	log(MLd)	0.021	0.141	0.021	0.885	-47.999	103.998

Spotted flycatcher
(*Muscicapa striata*)

Common yellowthroat
(*Geothlypis trichas*)

HVC



RA

